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ABSTRACT

Using media content data produced by Issues Management of Alexandria, Virginia (also known as "The Conference on Issues and Media"), a study examined agenda-setting for network television news, newspapers with broad syndication, and national weekly news magazines. Issues Management bi-weekly publishes the combined content for all three national media, with over 300 issues coded. The study focused on three questions: (1) Is agenda-setting strong or weak? (do people respond to media content?); (2) How does the choice of issues affect results? and (3) How quickly do people respond? (is a build-up of coverage needed to create response, as in an advertising campaign?). Eleven issues were selected, including cost of living/inflation, international tensions, morality, and crime. Issues were classified as to direct experience (high, moderate, or low). The study extended the "most important problem" paradigm, using George Gallup's response to this question as the measure of importance. Findings indicated that the amount of media content was positively correlated with issues the public said are most important to the nation, and that the correlation between media coverage and issue importance varied by issue. Findings also indicated that correlation was greater when media coverage led measurement of importance rather than the reverse. (Nine tables of data are included, and appendixes consist of a reconciliation of codes between Gallup and Issue Management and the definition of coincidental Gallup and Issues Management Measurement Period. Forty references are appended.) (MM)

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Agenda-Setting With Bi-weekly Content Data For Three National Media

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This agenda-setting study uses a new content source, Issues Management, which provides more complete and more frequent data than has been readily available before. Content is correlated with responses to Gallup's "most important problem" question in a longitudinal analysis. Eleven issues are examined, with optimal lead coverage reported. Discussion includes speculation as to why the coverage-importance correlation varies over time.

Introduction

Researchers of the phenomenon known as agenda-setting have a new tool. It is the media content data produced by Issues Management of Alexandria, Va., also known as The Conference on Issues and Media, with these features:

- data are published bi-weekly, starting in 1983.
- reported is the combined content of network television news, those newspapers with broad syndication, and national weekly news magazines.
- over 300 issues are coded.

Thus, there is a rich content lode.

With this new tool, we can now reassess agenda-setting conclusions and perhaps resolve inconsistencies which have emerged from over fifty earlier studies. We have chosen to focus on three questions:

1) Is agenda-setting strong or weak? Do people respond to media content or don't they? (We report now that the results are positive.)

2) How does the choice of issues affect results? The answer to this will lead to greater mysteries: why do issues differ in responsiveness? Why do these differences vary over time? Why, for example, does media coverage of inflation cost of living produce a low response at one time and a high response at another?

3) How quickly do people respond? Is a build-up of coverage needed to create response, as in an advertising campaign?

Literature Review

The Effect Size of Agenda-Setting

Has anything really changed since 1944, when Lazarsfeld, Berelson and Gaudet expected strong media effects but found them lacking? Wagner (1983) states, "This minimal effects thesis underlies two of the most comprehensive recent bibliographies of the study of mass media: Kraus and Davis's The Effects of Mass Media and Political Behavior (1978) and Dan Nimmo's Political Communication and Public Opinion in America (1978)."

Minimal effects evidence notwithstanding, scholars refuse to give up on the power of media. Instead, they try to understand it better. This has led to dissatisfaction with

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the mirror-image theory - the simple correlation of coverage and salience - and to theories of individual level effects as intervening variables. Among these are antecedent levels of information holding (Benton & Frazier, 1976, Palmgreen, Kline & Clark, 1974), interpersonal communication (Watt & Van Den Berg, 1978, Ebring et al, 1980, Clarke & Fredin, 1978, Tan, 1980), real-world events (Funkhouser, 1973, Behr & Iyengar, 1981), motivation (Weaver et al, 1975), interest and gratification (McCombs & Shaw, 1972, Chaffee, 1973, Iyengar, 1979), direct experience (Zucker, 1978, Eyal, 1979) and audience sensitivity (Ebring et al, 1980).

Several researchers have used the "most important problem question" paradigm, albeit with widely different content measures. (Funkhouser, 1973, Winter & Eyal,1981, Iyengar, 1979, Ebring et al, 1980, Weaver et al (1975). This relative methodological consistency did not produce consistent results. High correlations were found by Funkhouser (1973) at .78 and by Winter and Eyal (1981) at .71. Iyengar's (1979) result was moderate, at about .50. Contributing to the minimal effects literature, however, were Ebring at al (1980) with various issue correlations peaking at only .11, and Weaver et al (1975) at .16.

After Lazarsfeld et al (1944), then, we have evidence to dispute the consistency of minimal effects, but insufficient understanding of why results vary as drastically as they do.

Variations By Issue

Within the mirror image theory, and within the "most important problem" paradigm, researchers have hypothesized that all issues are unlikely to respond the same way. Zucker (1978) produced sharp differences in coverage-importance correlation by issue, from a high of .74 to a low of .01. (We will replicate much of his study.) Ebring et al (1980) also produced issue-by-issue data, but with all correlations at .11 or less, this study simultaneously reconfirmed minimal effects and voided issue differences. Other studies which measured multiple issues reported them in the aggregate.

Zucker (1978) classified issues as obtrusive and non-obtrusive. His definition of obtrusiveness is the extent to which people have direct experience with an issue. As such, it can also be an individual level variable.

Lead Time For Optimal Effect.

There have been two schools of thought about lead time. One, advanced by Stone (1975), is that a build-up of news coverage is needed to develop public responsiveness.

The other school has a shorter fuse. Winter & Eyal (1981) suggest optimum response when news coverage leads measurement of salience by 4-6 weeks. Zucker (1978) settled on 2-6 weeks. Behr & Iyengar (1985) contrasted "past" and "present", with their evidence favoring the "present."

With Issues Management reporting every two weeks, we have the opportunity to pinpoint the lead effect better than in earlier studies which used monthly content data.

Study Design

The Importance Variable

We extend the "most important problem" paradigm, using Gallup's response to this question as the measure of importance. As simple a decision as this leads to five caveats:

a. This measure is not isomorphic with public opinion. It forces, artificially, a single response and a nominal effect, even when multiple answers are coded.

b. Opinion is often volatile, perhaps because the sanctions against changing one's mind are slight. Does the use of the word "most" in Gallup's question contribute to volatility? It probably does, because it is all-or-nothing. Volatility is, of course, allied with variability, our underlying statistical tool. There is no reason to assume the effect on volatility of "most" is uniform across issues.

c. Over time the theory of media effects has shifted from influence over what people think to influence over what they think *about*. Operationally, this is a change from a measure of attitude to one of awareness.

Yet, we continue to measure "most important," which is an attitude. Even though we conceptualize agenda-setting as awareness, we do not measure awareness. Is, therefore, "most important" wholly valid?

d. Is importance the only attitude worth measuring? Might we not, for example, be interested in subjects' responses about the direct experience dimension, or the personal consequence of an issue?

e. There is slippage between attitude and behavior. Without wishing to open this door any wider than is necessary, we note Watt and Van Den Berg's (1978) use of a behavioral measure, telephoned complaints about the Concorde's noise level, and a .15 correlation with story prominence.

The Content Variable

Issues Management's data provides several advantages over other sources, in addition to the bi-weekly appearance of 300+ issues mentioned earlier:

a. Data describe national media, not local.

b. Data describe three media, not just one. Television content is that of the three networks' nightly news programs. Newspapers used are The New York Times, Chicago Tribune, Los Angeles Times, Washington Post and Wall Street Journal, whose syndicates expand the geography of their stories' readership. Weekly news magazines used are Time, Newsweek and U.S. News & World Report. The weights assigned by Issues Management are based on sources of news stated by college educated people, as follows: TV: .462, newspapers: .308, weekly news magazines: .231.[2]

c. Data extend back to 1983, providing this study a time frame of 3.5 years, and the opportunity for longitudinal analysis rather than cross-sectional. We have 89 Issues Management observations between March, 1983 and July, 1986. Gallup conducted 13 polls between April, 1982 and July, 1986 in which it asked its "most important problem" question. (Even though the underlying Gallup sample is sufficient, our n is 12 or 13, depending on the report period. An r of approximately .55 is needed to produce $p < .05$, a level of association occasionally obtained in this study.)

d. The media content unit accounts for story prominence. Summed length of stories is used as the determinant of the percent of total coverage for each issue. In print this includes headlines, illustrations and graphics. We assume that story length conveys prominence, correct if more prominent stories appear as longer stories. This occurs in newspapers and television, less so in weekly news magazines.

Selection of Issues

We selected eleven issues:

Cost of living/inflation
International tensions
Unemployment
Fear of war/nuclear disaster
Poverty
Crime
The economy
Morality
Government budget cuts
Criticism of government
The deficit

Some are of recent vintage, others are traditional. Avoided were issues which were, in Gallup, relatively invariant or at continuously low levels, although this introduces bias. The bias is assumed to be in the direction of greater sensisitivity to change for the issues studied than for those not included.

Issues were classified as to obtrusiveness (direct experience) as follows:
High: Inflation, crime.
Moderate (Obtrusive for those affected, not obtrusive for those not affected): unemployment, poverty, government budget cuts.
Low: The economy, the deficit, interna-

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2 Issues Management's computer system does not permit analysis of each medium's contribution separately. Data for each, of course, exist. Should they be analyzed by medium, we could establish new weights based on regression.

tional tensions, morality, criticism of government.

War and nuclear disaster are difficult to classify, as they combine catastrophic effect size with low probability of occurance.

Limitations

We have no individual level data. Therefore, we have no information about interpersonal communication, motivation, uses and gratifications. We have not tried to track real-world conditions for all issues. The weights used by Issues Management to combine television, newspapers and news magazines are based on a self-report measure whose validity is unproven.

In addition, there are several technical limitations dictated by the need to reconcile two independent reporting sources, Gallup and Issues Management:

a. It was necessary to aggregate Issues Management's codes to approximate Gallup's. Even though this was reviewed with Gallup, a different researcher might not have produced the identical reconciliation. This is fully described in Appendix A.

b. Gallup's measurement period is 2 to 3 days. It fell midway in an Issues Management period 5 times and toward the end of an Issues Management period 8 times.

c. Good news and bad news are not differentiated except for economic news. Unemployment, for example, is not reported directionally, but its effect on "the most important problem" would clearly be different if unemployment were going up rather than down.

d. An Issues Management observation appears in more than one analysis period because the lead and lag periods analyzed sometimes exceeded the interval between two Gallup waves. As such, one Issues Management observation affected two or more correlations, which reduces variation, and contributes to the invariant results for the lead and lag periods, as we will see. Two observations appeared once, three appeared twice, four appeared three times, and three appeared four times.

Hypotheses

H1: That the amount of media content is positively correlated with issues the public says are most important to the nation.

H2: The correlation between media coverage and issue importance will vary by issue.

H3: That recent coverage of an issue will produce higher correlations with importance than will earlier coverage.

We added a fourth, not because it is particularly in doubt, but because the reverse effects theory seems to have a half-life.

H4: Correlation is greater when media coverage leads measurement of importance rather than the reverse, importance measurement leading media coverage.

Findings/Discussion

Content-Importance Correlation: The mean of 11 issues was r = .400. One issue produced a negative relationship. The mean disregarding signs was r = .481. H1 is confirmed.

Issue Differences: The variations by issue are extreme, +0.87 to -0.44, covering nearly two thirds of the possible range, +1.0 to -1.0 (a). H2 is, thus, confirmed.

Criticism of government	.867*
Unemployment	.768*
Inflation/cost of living	.707*
Fear of war, nuclear disaster	.680*
International	.479
Poverty	.447
Crime	.317(b)
The economy	.248
The deficit	.199
Government budget cuts	.135
Morality	-.444

*p < .05
a. Analysis period is Gallup coincident with media content.
b. Issues Management does not tabulate local sections of newspapers, nor is local television news included. Both contain a substantial amount of crime news.

Thanks to the methodological similarity between this study and Zucker's (1978), and that both studies examined several common issues, we are able to look at differences in coverage-importance correlations over twelve years, producing three plot points, as follows (read across):

	1968-72	1972-76	1983-86
Similar Levels			
Unemployment	-	.74	.77
Drug abuse	.61	.60	-
Different levels			
Cost of living inflation	-.29	.62	.71
Pollution	.64	.01	-
Crime	.04	.16	.32

Why should the responsiveness of an issue change? If coverage and importance covary sometimes but not always, the answer is probably not found only within these variables. We offer these possibilities:

a. Some issues are inherently more responsive than others, probably having to do with inherent importance. Having no money is inherently more of a problem, to most people most of the time, than acid rain. Simple analysis of Gallup over many years, to even out the bumps, would show this, as would partialling when importance is a variable.

b. Coverage may, of course, *create* salience; the press tells what is important. This takes us back to H1, that importance is associated with coverage, and back to mirror-image theory. The fact that various researchers have not found consistent results, and that we have found intra-issue differences, by no means rules out this possibile causality.

c. Environmental factors other than media may contribute, as mentioned earlier. We looked briefly at one, real-world conditions, which Funkhouser (1973) has said are not the same as media coverage. The results are distinctly inconclusive. Crime responds as we intuitively think it should, with responsiveness paralleling real-world conditions and media coverage. Inflation's r, however, went up and stayed there, in spite of a real-world drop and a coverage drop. Unemployment remained responsive; real-world unemployment remained high; but coverage of it was low. Before we conclude that real-world contributes more than coverage, a look at pollution shows just the reverse.

Issue	Period (a)	r	Real-World (b)	Coverage(c)
Crime	1 to 2	down	-	down
	2 to 3	sharply up	up	high
Inflation	1 to 2	sharply up	sharply up	sharply up
	2 to 3	up	sharply down	low
Unemployment	2 to 3	high	high	low
Pollution	1 to 2	sharply down (water pollution)	sharply up	sharply down

(a) 1968-72 is Period 1, 1972-76 is Period 2, 1983-86 is Period 3.
(b) Data are from The Statistical Abstract of the U.S., 1987 Edition. Data used are: Pollution: water pollution incidents, sulphur oxide emmissions, gross waste generated; inflation: CPI; unemployment: labor force percent time lost, male percent unemployed; crime: persons arrested, rate of violent crime.
(c) Media coverage from Periods 1 and 2 vs. Period 3 are not comparable because sources were different. Period 3 data are described, therefore, by level rather than direction.

The traditional call for more research is appropriate at this point. The characteristics of issues, and the relationship of individuals to these characteristics, are worthy of study independent of media effects. Various dimensions of issues could include importance, direction of opinion, its scope, intensity (Young, 1954), conviction (Abelson, 1987), obtrusiveness (Zucker, 1978), personal consequence, daily consciousness, and Leonard Doob's drive power. We would not surprised if human motivation underlies much of what we might find.

Recency: Overall, same week coverage had a higher correlation than cumulative coverage.

# Weeks Prior To Importance Measure	r
None	.400
1-2	.371
1-4	.336
1-6	.322
1-8	.300
1-10	.289
1-12	.293

H3 is confirmed, but, as our measurement tool for content has become sharper, with two week report intervals rather than monthly, it becomes necessary to redefine recency. Instead of the recent-earlier dichotomy, we must now conceive a continuum and must extend its range. To recent, add contemporaneous coverage. If we had daily measures, might we add immediate? If content measure were coincidental with viewing, would we find instantaneous response?

The data suggest a prompt response to mass communication, not unlike the speed of reciprocity seen in interpersonal communication. This is more reasonable than its opposite, a delayed response. What, after all, happens between receipt of a mass media message and receiver response? Learning theory assumes there is synthesis, but if it takes longer than described in cognitive process, and includes activities such as consideration and contemplation, response is likely to be limited to just a few ideas and, considering the low involvement by the public with political issues, to just a few people.

To make the point about prompt response, we have been slightly disingenuous: for only five of the eleven issues studied did contemporaneous coverage produce the highest r. For four other issues, optimum r occurred for coverage cumulating two to four weeks before the salience measurement period. One issue peaked with six weeks of coverage, an one with twelve.

Future studies may find the causes for these different patterns, but we will leave unresolved the divergent appearance of these pocketbook issues: inflation and poverty

were in the contemporaneous pattern while unemployment, the economy and the deficit were in the recent pattern.

Frequency: A corrolary, then, is that frequency does not matter, only what happened today or this fortnight or this month. Zucker's (1978) explanation of this is that, after a while, people have made up their minds about an issue, and become bored. This contradicts learning theory, in which awareness and knowledge of a topic increase with frequency. Presumably, the more we know, the more we care. Zucker (1978) acknowledges that repetition is effective for a while. Can we reconcile these two views?

Effects can be opposite at different points in time. Frequency can create interest in early stages and destroy it later. An S-curve describes most of this, particularly if it tails downward. This can be field-studied in agenda-setting, but it is probably more efficient to use field experiments in political campaigning or advertising. At least the message remains constant.

Reverse Agenda-Setting: In all periods, correlation was greater when coverage lead the importance measurement than the reverse, importance measurement leading coverage. H4 is confirmed, again.

# Weeks Before and After	Coverage Leads Issue	Issue Leads Coverage	Index
1-2	.252	.114	(45)
3-4	.238	.112	(47)
5-6	.215	.175	(81)
7-8	.216	.104	(48)
9-10	.241	.165	(68)
10-12	.253	.197	(78)

Obtrusiveness and Other Factors

Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 represented 57.8% of the variation in Gallup. Three factors representing 47.7% of variance were rotated orthogonally yielding these patterns:[3]

Factor #1, Macroeconomics: the deficit and the economy, poverty, inflation, and government budget cuts. Illogical is that a rise in the importance of the deficit produces decreased concern about the economy, inflation and cuts in government spending.

Factor #2, The Pocketbook: unemployment and the cost of living inflation, which generate criticism of government.

Factor #3, Death-Is-Wrong: morality, fear of nuclear war, and crime.

Factor #4, International concerns.[4]

Is obtrusiveness a property of these factors? Macroeconomics are pretty remote. Cost of living is surely obtrusive. Unemployment is, if you are out of work or afraid you will be. 10% unemployment, however, means that 90% are employed. The fear, then, may be more general than the literal loss of a job; that hard times are ahead.

How obtrusive is government? In one sense, it is remote, impersonal and not obtrusive. Yet, government is so huge; if people look to government to solve their problems, the obtrusiveness of inflation or unemployment could reasonably rub off on government. If governmental is parental, is it not obtrusive?

Morality is not obtrusive. International concerns seem not to be obtrusive until they

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[3] These factors are independent of each other. The inter-factor correlations under oblique rotation are:

#1 to #2	.19
#1 to #3	.11
#2 to #3	-.03

[4] Not rotated.

lead to the third factor, fear of war in the nuclear age. Earlier in this paper we said that nuclear war was hard to classify, balancing huge effect size with low incidence of occurance. Risk theory, however, relates low incidence with low concern. Nuclear war, then, is nonobtrusive until the moment of holocaust.

There can be little doubt that crime is obtrusive: fear of violent crime and concern over petty crime are prevalent.

Zucker's (1978) contribution of obtrusiveness is thought-provoking; This study finds some support for it, although interpretation is required. For further clarity, obtrusiveness might be conceptualized as personal consequence, the degree to which an issue directly affects one's life. Opinions could be gathered from a public rather than classifications assigned by the researcher.

Our factor analysis suggests the need for similar clarification of these matters:

a. How do we perceive the role of government, and its efficacy? Do government's priorities match the public's?

b. Do we view international relations cooperatively ("one world") or ethnocentrically ("my country, right or wrong")? With international news coverage more prominent than a decade ago, how do we relate to the issues and nations involved?

Relative to crime and coping with society, there is utility in the "Mean World Index" developed by Gerbner and his associates (1980). While conceived for other purposes, it seems an interesting tool to track the individual's relationship to his social environment.

General Discussion

Newspapers vs. Television. In this report, we have sublimated the matter of intermedia effectiveness to the creation of a combined media index. It is, obviously, of broader interest. Each medium is an industry, with leverage on its political and economic clients. We could shed light on newspapers vs. television, and on weekly newsmagazines and radio, by multiple correlation and regression. Were we to dig into Issues Management's raw data, we would have an inter-media effectiveness measure.

Manipulation. In that coverage and salience are related, can we manage political and social opinion? The Broadcasting Act of 1932 was concerned with media's power to control minds, but we have drifted away from this fear. Behavioral science has contributed to this drift with its evidence of minimal effects, of self-selection, of media's ability to create awareness but not attitudes, of latitudes of rejection, and by the limits of cognitive synthesis.

Still, is there anyone among us who would deny that a person who could control media content would be uniquely influential? To be blunt, we still believe that it is possible to manufacture the importance of a chosen issue and, having done so, to create disproportionate consensus around an advocated position.

Eventually, in a diverse, open society, truth will out. In the short to medium term, however, the skilled political practitioner knows how to manipulate the media. Reporters and editors know they are being used, and are trying to fight it, but have not today regained the upper hand.

Pinpointing/Targeting. We have started to apply the marketing concept of segmentation to the study of beliefs. The hypodermic needle *does* work, but only when the right medicine is injected into the patient with the specific targeted disease . The salient message delivered to the motivated receiver will have an effect. Gerbner et al (1980) embrace this in their concept of "resonance." Fuller documentation of segmented communication is replete in marketing and advertising, but much of it is proprietary.

The point is this: at any given time, some issues are important to some people and not to others. The trick, it would seem, is to ascertain the importance of issues among constituent segments, and then to describe the size of these segments and the character of their issue specific beliefs.

There will be central tendency and variability; people will both group around a central issue, such as family, and splinter into single

issue groups. Of great interest will be the dynamic emerging salience of single issues into broad consensus, as has happened with women's rights.

If, therefore, we accept the existence of agenda-setting, we acknowledge that mass communication has a role in the diffusion of ideology. We can accelerate the reduction of injustice, pestilence, and abuse of our physical ecology.

Conclusions

1. The allure to researchers of minimal effects may be in its counterintuitiveness, but it is time to discard this theory. It should be replaced by the theory that response to salient communication is substantial.

2. The greatest response to salient communication occurs at the time of the communication.

3. Salience is not static; human priorities vary over time.

Appendix A

Reconciliation Of Codes Between Gallup And Issue Management.

Issues Management micro-manages its data, having over 300 different codes. On the other hand, the essence of the response to Gallup's question, "What is the most important problem facing the nation today?" is macro. Similarly, while Issues Management can rely on its coders minutely to classify individual stories, Gallup must rely on the soft-wall minds of its respondents.

It was, naturally, necessary to aggregate Issues Management categories to approximate those of Gallup. Also, as shown below, it was necessary to aggregate certain Gallup categories to avoid trying to interpret what a respondent meant, a practice which Gallup itself follows.

Here are the categories comparably aggregated for each data source, as used in this study:

Issues Management	Gallup	Study
Inflation	Cost of living, inflation	Inflation
Unemployment, jobs programs	Unemployment, recession	Unemployment
The needy	Poverty, hunger	Poverty
Negative economic	Economy (general)	Economy
Federal deficit	Excess government spending Excess military spending Excess social program spending Budget deficit	Deficit
Federal budget cuts Federal program cuts	Cuts in $ for social programs	Government budget cuts
Disarmament USSR arms U.S.-Soviet arms U.S. defense policy	Fear of nuclear war, world peace Arms race Arms talks Defense capability International Communism Security, defense Other war, defense, military	Fear of war, nuclear disast.
Crime	Crime	Crime
Social issues (teen pregnancy, sex ed., abortion, church, bioethics, pornography)	Moral, religious decline	Morality

Reagan criticism Administration criticism Congress criticism	Dissatisfaction with government Waste, corruption in government Reagan administration	Criticism of gov't.
Mid-east Persian Gulf Central America Caribbean South America USSR East bloc China Japan Southeast Asia Korea Philippines India United Nations Terrorism Canada Ireland Africa Anzus	Foreign affairs, foreign policy, international problems, other Soviet relations Central America Middle East Africa Western Europe, NATO China Southeast Asia Terrorism Other	International tensions

Appendix B

Definition Of Coincidental Gallup And Issues Management Measurement Period.

There are two patterns of timing of the Gallup wave within an Issues Management wave, as follows:

1. Gallup fell midway in an Issues Management period 5 times. The Gallup wave was on days 5-6, 5-6-7, or 5-6-7-8 of an Issues Management period for April and July, 1983, February, June and September, 1984.

2. Gallup's wave fell toward the end of an Issues Management period 8 times. The Gallup wave was on days 12-13-14-15, one day into the next Issues Management period, in October, 1983, February and August, 1984, January and May, 1985, January and July, 1986. In November, 1983, Gallup ended on day 14 of Issues Management.

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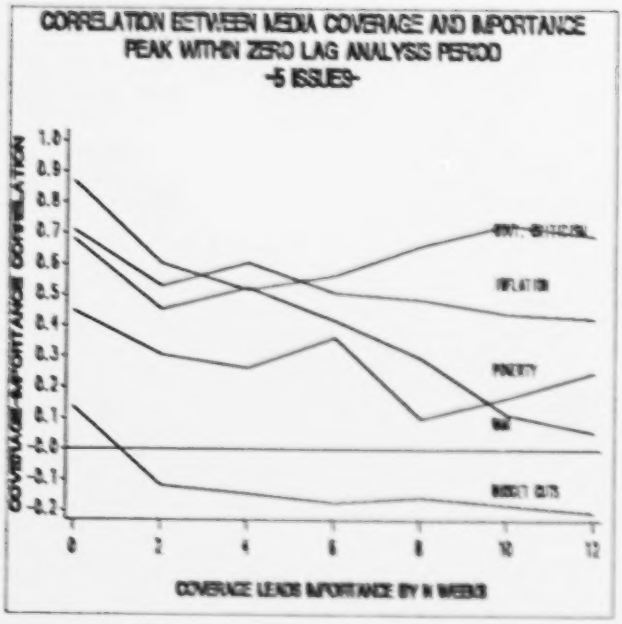
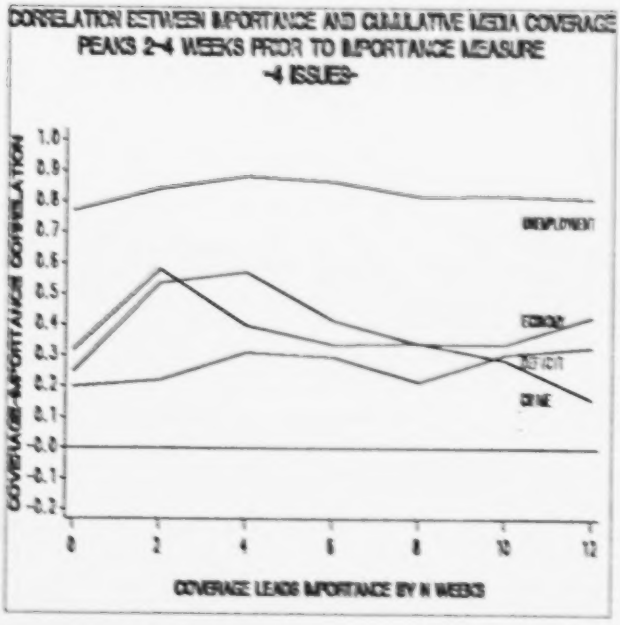
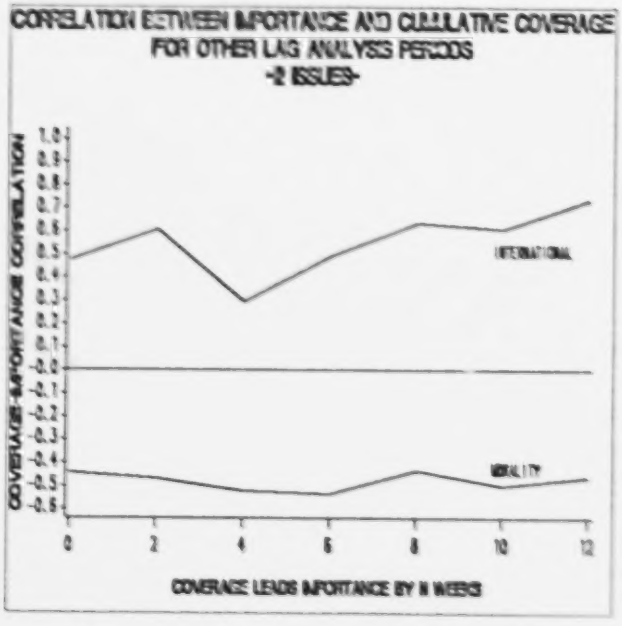

CORRELATION BETWEEN MEDIA COVERAGE AND IMPORTANCE
PEAK WITHIN ZERO LAG ANALYSIS PERIOD
-5 ISSUES-
COVERAGE-IMPORTANCE CORRELATION
INFLATION
POVERTY
WAR
COVERAGE LEADS IMPORTANCE BY N WEEKS


CORRELATION BETWEEN IMPORTANCE AND CUMULATIVE MEDIA COVERAGE
PEAKS 2-4 WEEKS PRIOR TO IMPORTANCE MEASURE
-4 ISSUES-
COVERAGE-IMPORTANCE CORRELATION
UNEMPLOYMENT
CRIME
COVERAGE LEADS IMPORTANCE BY N WEEKS


CORRELATION BETWEEN IMPORTANCE AND CUMULATIVE COVERAGE
FOR OTHER LAG ANALYSIS PERIODS
-2 ISSUES-
COVERAGE-IMPORTANCE CORRELATION
INTERNATIONAL
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